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ABSTRACT

Education in Sri Lanka is discussed as part of a series focusing on UNESCO's involvement in education in developing nations. The document is presented in four sections. Section I examines educational objectives since 1948 including literacy, extending basic education to all citizens, absorbing all schools into a state system, and establishing school farms. Section II analyzes plans of the Ministry of Education for implementing educational policies from 1978 to 1982. In addition, it indicates how much foreign aid is expected in various categories such as administration, teacher education, technical/vocational education, examinations, higher education, and educational research. Section III presents textual and tabular information on aid received from 1951 to 1976. In addition, problems are pointed out which interfered with educational development including lack of regional and national cooperation, lack of well defined national goals, and conflicts between donor policies and national priorities. The final section evaluates international cooperation in education in Sri Lanka since 1950 and concludes that educational development in developing nations will be facilitated if foreign nations and international organizations gear assistance to national educational policies and if they cooperate with national experts to plan and implement all educational programs. (DB)

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Unesco's Division of Educational Policy and Planning is undertaking an assessment of the effectiveness of international cooperation in education, with a view to identify possibilities for improvement. In this connection, a number of country case studies have been commissioned to research institutes or specialists in a sampling of developing countries.

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INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION IN EDUCATION

IN SRI LANKA

by

the Marga Institute
(Sri Lanka Centre for Development Studies)

50 012 237

June 1979

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FOREWORD

Unesco's General Conference at its 19th session (Nairobi, Kenya, 1976) resolved that the Secretariat give particular attention to "gathering and disseminating information about new educational policies for the renewal of educational systems, adapted to specific needs on the basis of particular social, economic and cultural situations and aimed at promoting democratization of the systems within the framework of life-long education" (Programme Resolution 1.111).

In line with this mandate the Division of Educational Policy and Planning began in 1977 reproducing selected technical papers and distributing them as a series under the general title: "Reports, Studies ...". The aim of this series is to stimulate reflection and discussion on current issues confronting educational policy-makers, planners, administrators and school architects. Distribution is limited to Unesco officials at Headquarters and in the field, as well as interested technical personnel in governmental and private institutions. It is hoped that this series will promote and serve as a vehicle for increasing communication between individuals and institutions concerned with policy and planning aspects of education.

The "Reports, Studies ..." series consists of two sub-series : (i) papers with a subject orientation (numbered S.1, S.2, etc.) and (ii) papers focusing on a given country (numbered C.1, C.2, etc.). Subject papers deal with such topics as educational policies and legislation, planning and management techniques, planning and design of educational space and facilities, the relationship of education to productive work and employment, inter-country cooperation, the role of education in respect of the New International Economic Order, etc. Country papers are either brief profiles of the educational system of a particular country (mainly the LDCs) or treat a specific reform or aspect of the country's educational system.

Some of the papers reproduced in the series are "desk studies" based on information available within Unesco, others were originally prepared as background or discussion papers for a meeting or seminar, while still others are personal position papers representing part of a continuous dialogue within the Unesco Secretariat.

Papers are selected for the series on the basis of their topical interest. Readers should bear in mind that many, if not most, of the papers are working documents, unedited and not intended for public distribution. Some of the authors have written in a language other than their mother tongue, which explains certain linguistic deficiencies. It must also be stressed that the papers present the ideas of their respective author and do not necessarily reflect the policies of Unesco.

The Division of Educational Policy and Planning welcomes comments and suggestions concerning the series and invites readers to make known their reactions to particular ideas presented or to entire papers. In certain cases it may be possible to reproduce such comments and reactions in a subsequent issue of the series. For the convenience of readers who may wish to contact the author of a paper, the current contact address is given whenever possible.

AVANT PROPOS

La Conférence Général de l'Unesco, lors de sa 19e session (Nairobi, Kenya, 1976) a décidé que "la collecte et la dissémination de l'information sur les nouvelles politiques d'éducation pour le renouvellement et la réforme des systèmes d'éducation adaptés aux besoins spécifiques basés sur des situations sociales, économiques et culturelles particulières et qui ont comme objectif la démocratisation des systèmes dans le cadre de l'éducation permanente" (Résolution 1.111 du programme) se situent parmi les objectifs prioritaires de l'Organisation.

Conformément à ce mandat, la Division des politiques et de la planification de l'éducation a entrepris en 1977 la reproduction et la distribution de certains documents techniques, sous le titre général de "Rapports et Etudes ...". Cette série a pour objet de stimuler la réflexion et les discussions portant sur les problèmes courants auxquels doivent faire face les décideurs, les planificateurs et les administrateurs de l'éducation ainsi que les architectes scolaires. La distribution se limite aux professionnels du Siège et hors-Siège, ainsi qu'aux personnels d'institutions gouvernementales ou privées susceptibles de les trouver utiles pour leur travail. Nous espérons que cette série constituera un moyen pour promouvoir et augmenter la communication entre les individus et les institutions concernés par les différents aspects des politiques et de la planification de l'éducation.

Ces "Rapports et Etudes ..." se divisent en deux catégories: (i) les documents qui traitent d'un sujet (numérotés S.1, S.2, etc.) et (ii) les documents qui traitent d'un pays (numérotés C.1, C.2, etc. Les premiers portent sur des sujets tels que les politiques et la législation de l'éducation, les techniques de gestion et de planification, la planification et l'étude des espaces, constructions et équipements éducatifs, la relation entre éducation/travail/emploi, la coopération entre les pays, le rôle de l'éducation par rapport au Nouvel ordre économique international, etc. Les seconds présentent des profils du système éducatif d'un pays donné (principalement les pays les moins développés), ou traitent d'une réforme ou d'un aspect spécifique du système éducatif du pays concerné.

Certains des documents reproduits dans cette série sont des "desk studies" basés sur des informations déjà existantes à l'Unesco, d'autres ont été préparés à l'origine pour servir de documents de base ou de discussion à des réunions ou séminaires, alors que d'autres encore, exprimant les positions personnelles des auteurs, se situent dans le cadre d'un dialogue permanent au sein du Secrétariat de l'Unesco.

Les documents sont choisis pour cette série en fonction de l'actualité du sujet traité. Les lecteurs doivent tenir compte du fait que beaucoup, sinon la plupart, des documents sont des documents de travail inédits et ne sont pas destinés au public. Certains auteurs ont rédigé ces documents dans une langue qui n'est pas la leur, ce qui explique certaines faiblesses linguistiques. Nous voudrions également souligner que les documents expriment les idées de leurs auteurs respectifs et ne reflètent pas nécessairement la politique de l'Unesco.

La Division des politiques et de la planification de l'éducation souhaite recevoir des commentaires ou suggestions au sujet de la série, et demande aux lecteurs de bien vouloir faire part de leurs réactions à certaines idées exprimées ou à des documents dans leur ensemble. Dans certains cas, il sera peut-être possible de reproduire ces commentaires et réactions lors d'une prochaine parution de la série. Les adresses des auteurs des documents sont indiquées afin de donner aux lecteurs qui le désirent la possibilité d'entre en contact avec eux.

RESUME

The present study looks back over nearly three decades of foreign assistance and the impact it had on educational development in Sri Lanka. In the first part of the paper a short overview is given of educational objectives and development since 1948. Educational objectives in the Fifties and Sixties were by and large an attempt to produce formal education of colonial origin from which a privileged minority apparently profited.

The educational policy of the government from 1972 to 1977 was towards quality improvement of the output from the formal education system at different exit points. The inadequacy of the formal system alone to meet the educational needs of the population was recognized. Following the change of government in 1977, educational policy has been oriented toward the creation of a new society based on human and moral values.

The second part of the paper analyzes international cooperation and its impact on educational development in Sri Lanka. The first systematic aid flow to Sri Lanka was initiated with the establishment of the "Colombo Plan" for Cooperative Economic Development in South and South-East Asia (1950). This was the period when the critical need of Third World countries had been identified as technical and vocational training. From the late Fifties and early Sixties, foreign aid for general education was used mainly for the extension of science teaching in the secondary schools. It was only in 1972 that a reform of the education system as a whole was attempted.

The study concludes by drawing some lessons for international cooperation in education based on nearly three decades of Sri Lanka's experience. National educational policies will probably be increasingly influenced by international trends. Formal education, which until now has served as a selection mechanism, cannot meet the educational needs of the masses, and this problem area will likely receive more attention over the next 10 years.

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RESUME

La présente étude effectuée sur les trente dernières années porte sur l'assistance extérieure et analyse l'influence de cette dernière sur le développement de l'éducation au Sri Lanka. Dans la première partie, on trouvera un bref aperçu des objectifs et du développement de l'éducation depuis 1948. Au cours des années cinquante et soixante, les objectifs en matière d'éducation, dans une large mesure, ont visé à offrir une éducation formelle de type colonial dont semble avoir profité une minorité privilégiée.

De 1972 à 1977, la politique du Gouvernement eut pour but l'amélioration de la qualité des résultats du système d'éducation formelle à la fin de ses différents cycles. L'insuffisance de ce seul système pour faire face aux besoins de la population a été reconnue. A la suite du changement de gouvernement intervenu en 1977, la politique de l'éducation s'est orientée vers la création d'une nouvelle société basée sur des valeurs humaines et morales.

La deuxième partie du document concerne la coopération internationale et son influence sur le développement de l'éducation au Sri Lanka. Un premier courant d'aide systématique débuta avec la mise en place du "Plan de Colombo" pour le Développement économique coopératif du Sud et du Sud-Est asiatiques (1950). C'est à cette époque que la formation technique et professionnelle fut reconnue comme un besoin crucial des pays du Tiers Monde. A partir de la fin des années cinquante et du début des années soixante, l'aide extérieure pour l'éducation fut essentiellement consacrée au développement de l'enseignement scientifique dans les écoles secondaires. Ce n'est qu'en 1972 qu'une réforme du système éducatif dans son ensemble fut tentée.

En conclusion la présente étude tire de l'expérience acquise au Sri Lanka pendant près de trente ans, des enseignements pour la coopération internationale en matière d'éducation. Les politiques nationales de l'éducation seront probablement largement influencées par les tendances internationales. L'éducation formelle, qui a agi jusqu'à présent en tant que mécanisme de sélection, ne peut faire face aux besoins des masses en matière d'éducation, et l'on accordera probablement une plus grande attention à ce problème au cours de la prochaine décennie.

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INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION IN EDUCATION IN SRI LANKA

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Objectives

In the education sector there have been certain policy decisions which have had the support of every government since Sri Lanka ceased to be a colony of the British Empire in 1948. Some of the decisions were implemented even prior to 1948 when Sri Lanka had a certain measure of control over her internal affairs. These included the introduction of the national languages as the media of instruction, the introduction of a free education scheme under which tuition is free from grade 1 to the first degree at a University and the absorption of nearly all the schools into a system of State schools financed and managed entirely by the State. Underlying these decisions was the goal of equal access to education for every child of school-going age irrespective of sex, race, creed or place of residence. A scheme of scholarships and bursaries operating at different levels of the education system, the construction of secondary schools in predominantly rural areas with facilities for teaching science, incentives to science and mathematics teachers to serve in rural areas gave further support to this goal. But it may be said that up to the beginning of the present decade the expansion of the education system in all its aspects was not accompanied by any significant change in the aims and content of education. By and large the attempt was to mass produce a formal education of colonial origin from which a privilege minority apparently profited.

The cumulative impact of this vigorous growth in one sector of the economy was beginning to be felt in various ways towards the end of last decade. It had its climax in the insurrection of 1971 in which the vast majority of participants including the entire leadership was from the "educated young". The educational policy of the new government elected in 1970 did indicate a recognition of the problems as the following quotation shows:

> "The basic shortcoming of the country's educational system is that the academic type curricular are framed to cater to the needs of that small minority of the output of the educational system who having reached the GCE 'O' level compete for the very small number of jobs, available as doctors, engineers, administrators, or teachers. Of the others, a small number obtain employment in the clerical, technical and service occupations, while the rest begin

the interminable wait for the white-collar jobs that are not there. Judging from results it is no exaggeration to say that the social returns to educational investment have been negligible, if not negative.

It cannot be even remotely suggested that a mere curricular reform will by itself transform the nature of the problem of unemployment. The scrumble for white-collar jobs is readily understandable in the prevalent structure of wages and salaries in the economic system. The scales of remuneration that are attached to the national priorities or to the relative scarcity of the different kinds of skills required for the country's development.

But a curricular reform can do at least two things. Firstly, it can equip the rising generation with knowledge and the skills necessary for development. Secondly, it can inculcate in them an appreciation of what activities are important for the country's development. In the final analysis it can also render both teaching and learning more interesting and more meaningful by relating it to the economic environment of the student, by relating it to the life that goes on around him. The main objective of the curricular change that is to be inaugurated from 1972 is to integrate the academic and vocational aspects of education in the general school system. It seeks to equip students with a good general education together with a basic familiarity with one or more vocational opportunities available to them. This does not mean any reduction in academic content. What it means is that the materials taught and the whole idiom of teaching has meaning for the student and will stand him in good stead when he leaves the system."

The Five-Year Plan - 1972

As indicated by the above quotation the major educational thrust of the government of the early part of the present decade was towards a quality improvement of the output from the formal education system at different exit points. That government also recognised the inadequacy of the formal system alone to meet the educational needs of the population. It took the first steps towards establishing an Open University, organised correspondence courses in a variety of fields and created a section within the Education Ministry to initiate non-formal education programmes.

1977 saw the establishment of a new government elected with an unprecedented majority and committed in principle to different econimic, social and educational policies. The goal of the new government has been briefly stated as the "creation of a new society based on human and moral values". The main policy emphasis of the government as judged by official publications and pronouncements by the leadership is on the need to create a just society of free people out of the plural population in the country with its multi-racial, multi-lingual and multi-religous characteristics. It has taken very meaningful steps in this direction. The major contribution which the government expects from the formal school system seems to be the creation of a just and cohesive society. It hopes to tackle the problem of unemployment among the educated youth by promoting the vigorous growth of the country's economy through a lowering of the intervention into its market mechanisms. If there is a "mis-match" between education and employment the solution is to create more employment by activating not only the public but more particularly the private sector. The policy of the government is to have these two sectors competing with each other, stimulating competition within the public sector itself and creating what it has called a "people's Sector" to enable the masses to obtain a measure of control over the the means of production and distribution. The particular vocational skills which are required are to be obtained more through the non-formal system and the tertiary level than through the formal school system. The replacement of pre-vocational studies in the secondary school by the more "traditional technical subjects indicates a belief that future development is technical/industrial based.

In recognition of these problems the present Government has decided to implement several far-reaching reforms in the field of education. The United National Party Manifesto spells out the following policy orientations to be used in the development of education during the period 1978-1982.

i. The development of education with a view to facilitating the growth of the personality of the students in order to enable them to maintain their self-respect and dignity.

ii. The progressive reduction of the imbalances that exist between urban and rural Maha Vidyalayas in relation to the availability of educational facilities such as Science laboratories, classrooms, equipment and staff etc., with a view to enabling rural children to pursue higher education programmes in professional fields such as Medicine, Engineering, Science, Law etc.

iii. The establishment of school farms in order to encourage pupils to participate in productive agricultural activities.

iv. The formulation of a Parents Charter and implementing it with a view to enlisting the cooperation of the parents in the development of education.

v. The establishment of an Education Service Commission with a view to stream-lining the operations involved in recruitment, training and posting ofCeylong Education Service personnel.

vi. The organisation of non-formal programmes of education and training with a view to providing educational and training facilities to adults and school-leavers who have not benefited much from Formal Education.

In the organisation of these programmes, due consideration will be given to the various resources available in these localities and the types of industries that are predominant in these areas.

Policy guidelines in relation to the development of education outlined in brief could be further amplified for the purpose of implementation by the Ministry of Education in the following terms :

(a) General Education

Reduction of the Age of Admission to Grade I Class from 6 years to 5 years commencing from January '78

The former Government raised the age of admission from the then prevailing 5 years to 6 years with the explicit undertaking of providing Pre-school Education facilities to those children in the age group 4-6 years. However, despite this undertaking, the former Government has failed to provide such Pre-school Education facilities to a large number of children in this age group. Those children in this age group who belong to the higher socio-economic strata of society managed to obtain these services through private and other agencies at a cost to their parents. Those children from the lower socio-economic stata of society thereby failed to obtain these services which are of critical significance to their later mental and physical development. Hence, this policy of the former Government tended to perpetuate an inequality which has considerable implications for educational achievement particularly of those children who come from the lower socio-economic stata of society. In view of this problem the Ministry of Education decided to reduce the age of admission to Grade I Class from the earlier 6 years to 5 years commencing from 1978. The circular programmes in these grades have been designed to be play-oriented and seek to assist these children in the process of socialisation and gradual introduction into the formal school system.

The general education curriculum covering the Grades 1-11 introduced during the former Government have been subjected to severe criticism by practising teachers, parents, professionals and educationists on several grounds. The appropriateness of the subject matter in this curricular programmes, availability of resources for their implementation and the limitations of the N.C.G.E. and the H.N.C.E. Examination have been the subject of criticism from these quarters. Hence, it has been decided to examine the existing programmes in order to identify their limitation and weaknesses and to effect remedial action.

In pursuance of this the N.C.G.E. Examination has been scrapped and a flexible curriculum has been introduced during the transitional period (1978) in order to facilitate the reintroduction of the General Certificate of Education (OL) Examination. The N.C.G.E. Examination which was administered up to the end of 1976 has had no recognition internationally and this has prevented a large number of students from having access to educational institutions abroad. Further, this examination had had no currency value for gaining employment, either in the State Sector or in the Private Sector. Hence, the strong need that exists for the reintroduction of the General Certificate of Education (OL) Examination which has both international and national recognition.

The H.N.C.E. Examination has also been scrapped and the General Certification of Education (Advanced Level) Examination is being reintroduced for the purpose of selecting students for admission to the University of Sri Lanka. It is significant to note that, in the introduction of these examination changes, action would be taken to ensure that no students will be penalised or victimised during the transition.

The problem of the imbalances in the availability of educational facilities between urban schools and rural schools will be resolved from several fronts. Two schools will be

developed in each electorate in order to provide teaching facilities comparable to those available in well-developed urban schools. Science teaching facilities will be developed in schools situtated in rural areas in order to provide higher education facilities to rural children, particularly in the fields of Medicine, Engineering and Science etc. The scholarship programme that obtains at present will be reorganised and developed to cater more effectively to the needs of rural children coming from poor families.

In recognition of the significance of Technical Education in programmes of General Education the Ministry of Education has decided to introduce the teaching of technical subjects such as Wood-work, Masonry, Pottery, Agriculture, Weaving, Ceramics and Needle-Work etc., in the Junior secondary grades. In the organisation of these teaching programmes the cooperation and support of the local Technicians/Craftsmen will be obtained wherever appropriate and feasible.

The medium of instruction will be either Sinhala or Tamil, depending on the language of the parent or the guardian but English would be taught as a compulsory Second Language. Further, facilities will be provided for the teaching of languages such as Pali, Arabic, French, German, Chinese and Russian etc., in order to facilitate those students who desire to learn such languages. Facilities for the study of Sinhala will be made available to the Tamil students while facilities for the study of Tamil will be made available to the Sinhala students with a view to bringing about national integration. This will operate in Grades 6-10 classes.

An analysis of the implementation programme of the Ministry of Education for 1978-1982 indicating the expected foreign aid

An Education Sector Paper published this year gives the Implementation Programme of the Ministry of Education from 1978-1982 by year level. It indicates the financial commitments for the period by programmes and projects which have been identified. The estimated expenditure is further broken down into local and foreign costs. What follows is essentially a summary of this paper:

	Programme	Estimated Expenditure in Rs. Millions		
		1978	1980	1982
1.	General Administration	51.9	65.2	71.0
2.	General Education	848.7	1336.3	1463.9
3.	Teacher Education	13.6	15.2	16.1
4.	Technical/Vocational Education	65.0	101.7	129.2
5.	Examinations	22.5	26.1	27.0
6.	Higher Education	136.8	240.3	126.9
7.	Educational Publications	.751	.826	.908

Under the General Administration Programme new regional educational offices, housing for technical staff and buildings for the staff college (for training of Education Service Officers) are to be built. The entire building costs are from local funds. The only foreign costs under this programme totalling nearly Rs. 11 million are for the import of cars and lorries.

Under the General Education Programme, the construction of Science laboratories, science rooms, workshops and other special rooms are being continued. Specific allocations have been made for the development of small/rural schools, the take-over and development of estate schools and the establishment of school leavers centres for the development of vocational skills. Foreign costs totalling up to nearly Rs. 18 million are to be incurred for the purchase of equipment for the school leavers centres. Foreign costs totalling up to nearly Rs.16 million are to be incurred in 1979-1981 for primary Education Development. The population education project is being continued and involves foreign costs, the foreign component being a significant proportion of the total expenditure for the project. A pilot project for the teaching of English costing about Rs. 42 million is being

financed entirely from foreign sources. The ongoing and new projects under the teacher education programme are being financed entirely from local funds.

Among the new projects planned under the technical education programme is the construction of 12 polytechnical institutes per year. The building costs are to be borne locally. Part of all the furniture and equipment costs is to be from foreign sources. The foreign cost component for this over the plan period is approximately Rs.88 million.

Another project under this programme incurring foreign costs is the establishment of the Sri Lanka Institute for Distance Education. The construction of the main building and the provision of furniture is from local funds. Equipment is expected from foreign sources, the estimated cost being about Rs. 40 million spread over the plan period. Under this programme the existing technical institutes are also being developed. The provision of equipment for these is to be met from foreign sources and the cost is of the order of seventy four million rupees over the plan period.

The expanding work load of the Department of Examinations has necessitated the increasing use of computer technology. The foreign costs for this and the improvements to the press are approximately Rs. 4 million.

An important project under the University programmes is the creation of an Open University with the Sri Lanka Institute of Distance Education and the External Services Agency of the University of Sri Lanka as the nucleus. Additional buildings are to be put up for this purpose financed entirely locally. Part of the furniture and equipment costs totalling about Rs.2 million is to be met from foreign sources. Under the University Programmes several new Campuses are to be opened in different parts of the country. There is no breakdown of local and foreign costs for these projects.

On current planning, it appears that foreign expenditure is entirely for the purchase of equipment. Over the plan period, the total estimated expenditure both recurrent and capital

inclusive of foreign costs is Rs.8,209.6 million. The estimated foreign costs over the same period is Rs.207.5 million. Hence, over the total plan period the estimated foreign costs are about 2.53% of the total estimated costs. While this is small as a percentage, it is a critical input without which significant objectives may not be attainable. As a percentage of the total capital expenditure the foreign costs are 11.57%.

The implementation programme of the Ministry does not reflect adequately some inputs which are probably critical for the implementation. The Education Sector Paper states that the contemplated reforms depend among other things "on the provision of facilities for the extensive professional training of administrative and management personnel". The Sector Paper also states that "Mal-administration and mis-management prevailed during the recent past in an unprecedented scale". One therefore expects an Implementation Programme to indicate how a recurrence of this phenomenon may be averted. The General Administration Programme does not indicate specifically any project for the needed "extensive professional training". This may be one area in which foreign assistance may be profitably sought.

Where foreign costs are concerned, the Implementation Programme indicates only the expected capital costs. The costs of services which may be rendered by such agencies as the UNESCO, UNICEF, The British Council, US-AID, other foreign diplomatic missions, etc., are not specifically indicated. The expected services may include the training abroad of local personnel, exchange of professional people, study tours, attendance at international seminars, conferences and workshops, organising local conferences, seminars and workshops etc. All these are concerned with the development of human resources. And this may be a very critical input into the implementation programme although the costs may be comparatively small.

International Cooperation

Extent and nature and sources of aid received up to end of 1976

The State accounts of the Republic of Sri Lanka (formerly Government of Ceylong) contains statements with respect to foreign aid and foreign loans. The first separate entry with respect to "aid" appears in the accounts for the financial year 1951-52 where "Colombo Plan Aid" has been listed. The Colombo Plan for Cooperative Economic Development in South and South-East Asia was established in 1950. It would appear, therefore, that the Colombo Plan initiated the first systematic aid flow to Sri Lanka.

Table 1 below gives a summary of all the Colombo Plan Aid (excluding value of capital goods) received from the financial year 1951-52 up to 31.12.1976. 3.8% of this aid was used for the education sector. The information given in the State accounts indicates that the aid for the education sector was for the construction of buildings and supply of equipment for the Universities, Technical Colleges and technical institutes. None of this aid was for elementary or secondary schools. Much of this aid was in the form of gifts of flour.

Table 1

Colombo Plan Aid (excluding value of capital goods)

Donor	Period	Total aid in rupees	Component for education sector in rupees
New Zealand	1952-1960	12,263,871.60	1,342,464.41
Australia	1952-1976	30,743,027.54	Nil
Canada	1952-1976	239,917,974.15	9,326,292.19
Total		282,924,873.29	10.668,756.60

Source: State Accounts of the Republic of Sri Lanka for the financial year 1976, Part I, Table 2, pp.24-31. Department of Government Printing, 1978.

The State accounts for the financial year 1956-57 contains the first reference to aid received from the Government of the United States of America. Table 2 below gives a summary of the regular aid received from this source up to the end of 1976.

Table 2

Aid received from the United States of America

Period	Total aid in rupees	Component for education sector in rupees
1957-1976	40,426,557.23	7,043,678.73

Source: State accounts of the Republic of Sri Lanka for the financial year 1976, Part I, Table 2, pp.32-35. Department of Government Printing, 1978.

The first reference to any aid received from the U.N. system appears in the accounts for the financial year 1952/1953 where under a "UNESCO Technical Assistance Programme" a project called the "Fundamental Education Project at Minneriya" has been funded. Unfortunately the accounts do not differentiate between local costs and aid and hence it is not possible to give the foreign component separately. Funding of this project continued for the next two years after which there is no separate entry for the project. The Fundamental Education Project at Minneriya was an adult education project (?) and probably the funding may have continued under adult education. It is not until 1966-67 that the state accounts indicated the foreign aid component of the expenditures.

A Department of Foreign Aid (now called Department of External Resources) was established in 1965. Foreign aid as a separate component of Part II of the statement of accounts appeared after the establishment of this Department. From the financial year 1967-68, part I of the statement of accounts contains separate Tables giving all the aid received other than those already listed under C-Plan Aid, US-AID and aid from China. Of this aid the components which went into the Education Sector are given in Table 3 below :

Table 3

Aid received for the Education Sector (from 1967) not listed in Tables 1 and 2 above

Year	Donor	Value in rupees	Nature of aid	Total
1967-1968	UNICEF	594,656.86	Equip for Science Laboratory	
		13,917.00	Equip for Science equip. prod. unit	608,573.86
	Asia Fd.	170,323.00	Science Lab.equip. for University.	
		74,254.55	Cash for agriculture prog. at a school	244,577.55

contd.

Nuffield Science Institute		47,231.00	Science Books and Periodicals	47,231.00
			Total for 1967-68	900,382.41
1968-1969	UNICEF	81,929.00	Vehicles	
		395,750.00	Equip. for Science Labs.	
		172,698.00	Equip. for Science equip. manufacturing project.	
		130,160.00	Science/Maths Scholarships	780,537.00
	Australia	135,693.23	Equipment for Technical College	135,693.23
			Total for 1968-69	916,230.23
1969-70	UNICEF	338,823.00	Equip. for Science Labs.	
		85,599.00	Equip. for Science Labs. Manufacturing Project	
		45,000.00	Equipment for the CDC	469,422.00
			Total for 1969-70	469,422.00
1970-71	UNICEF	1,185,572.00	Equipment for Technical Science Institute	
		693,947.36	Equip. and printed material for educational activities	
		173,393.30	Science Equipment	
		371,155.95	Equip. for water supply, tec. education	
		16,826.66	Equip. for Science Equip. Manufacturing project.	2,440,895.27
			Total for 1970-71	2,440,895.27
1971-72	UNICEF	66,255.02	Vehicles	
		735,711.95	Science and Agricul-ture equipment	801,966.97
			Total for 1971-72	801,966.97

Contd.

1972-73	UNICEF	399,059.62	Science equip Total for 1972-73	339,059.62
1973-74	UNICEF	1,932,613.97	Science equip. vehicles, teacher training equipment	1,932,613.97
	UNFPA	133,617.39	Materials and equipment	133,617.39
			Total for 1973-74-	2,066,231.36
1974-75	UNICEF	330,508,79	Equipment	305,508.79
	UNFPA	623,491.03	Materials and equipment	623,491.03
			Total for 1974-75-	953,999.82
1975-1976	UNFPA	3,059,699.86	Materials and equipment	3,059.699.86
			Total for 1975-76-	3,059,699.86

It is very likely that during this period Sri Lanka received aid for the training of personnel which has not been shown separately in the accounts. An item called "Government scholarships tenable outside Ceylon" appears in the accounts from the financial year 1952-53. It is likely that part of this expenditure was as aid. It is only towards the latter part of this period, namely in 1968-69 that the foreign aid component of this is indicated separately. But this does not appear to have been done consistently. Hence it is not possible to isolate the foreign aid component of the costs of training personnel abroad from the published records. It is also likely that some of the aid for training personnel was not channelled through the official organizations. This would make it almost impossible to isolate this component.

The data presented so far has been from Part 1 of the statments of accounts referred to. Part 1 also lists separately the various loans negotiated by the State. It is therefore safe to assume that the amounts mentioned in the previous Tables refer to grants and not loans.

Part 1 of the statement of accounts also give the aid received by Sri Lanka as "Programme Aid Grants", "Food Aid Grants", "Aid received from the Republic of China" and aid received from Sources not listed anywhere else. The Programme Aid Grants have been received from 1965. The donors have been Australia, Sweden, Canada, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, New Zealand and the World Food Organisation. The supplies received were flour, maize, milk powder, fertilizer, seed potatoes and equipment. The total aid was of the order of rupees 110 million. Food Aid Grants were received from 1969 the donors being U.K., Australia, Italy, Belgium, E.E.C and Japan. The total aid was of the order of Rs. 260 million. Aid has been received from the Republic of China from 1957. The total received was of the order of Rupees 115 million. None of this aid was for the Education Sector.

Part II of the Statements of accounts gives the expenditure Ministry by Ministry. From 1966-67 the accounts for the Ministry of Education indicate the expenditure under "Foreign Aid". But it appears that the term "Foreign Aid" includes expenditure under loans as well. Hence the data from Part II is not being used in this study.

One obvious feature of the aid received so far is the relatively small fraction for the Education Sector. This is very apparent from Tables 1 and 2. Tables 3 does not list the total aid received. For 1976, of the aid received from the U.N. system, only 1.8% has been for education. Another feature is that much of the aid for the Education Sector has been for the construction of the buildings and supply of equipment.

The buildings have been almost exclusively for the University and the technical colleges. From the records it is difficult to find a signle instance of building being constructed for the first and second level. It may be said that almost the whole of the C-Plan and US-Aid for the Education Sector has been for the tertiary level.

Of the aid received from other agencies, the contribution from UNICEF stands out. The development of the Science Education programme of the school system obviously owed much to the UNICEF contributions. The only aid which has ever flowed into the first and second levels up to the early 1970's has been from UNICEF. In the late 1970's the UNFPA became a major contributor.

As referred to earlier, it is difficult to quantify the aid received from various sources by way of the training of local personnel abroad and the services of foreign experts made available locally. Although this may be small in quantitative terms, there is no doubt that it has been a very significant contribution.

Problems in regional and nationa cooperation

These problems may be discussed under the following categories:

Lack of a long-term policy and well-defined national goals;
Conflicts between donor policies and national priorities;
Inadequate supporting services;
Unrealistic donor expectations;
Inadequacies of foreign training programmes.

Lack of an adequate long-term policy and well-defined national goals

The use of resources whether local or foreign must be for the attainment of definite goals and in an area like education the goals must necessarily be long-term. The lack of such clearly formulated long-term goals may partially explain the mere growth in size of the traditional system with very little

effort to develop one which meets the countr's needs. The educational law of the country which goes into meticulous detail over such matters as religious instruction has no specific provision for the formulation and review of educational goals. Nor have educational goals, whether short-term or long-term been the content of any document which is legally binding on the officials and accepted by the people at large. By convention the Minister of Education lays down policy presumably with the approval of the Cabinet. By law he can give effect to this policy by acting through his officials. But rarely, if ever, has Ministerial policy been explicitly formulated and publicly debated whether by the duly elected representatives of the people or by the people at large. Generally educational policy has to be inferred from the administrative actions taken by the Ministry. Even a cursory examination of administrative actions over a period of time leaves the general impression of an inconsistent inadequate policy.

The present decade is a particularly good example of this. The age of admission was raised by ;1 year in 1972. It has been reduced to the original level in 1978. A 5 + 4 + 2 school structure introduced in 1972 has been revised again in 1978. National examinations which were abolished have been re-introduced, and new examinations which were introduced have been abolished. Curricular changes have been made and reversed so that most teachers and heads of schools are probably wary about taking a serious interest in any change. A prevalent attitude seems to be that no change will last more than the period of the current party in power. Changes in the University structure have been so sudden that one is not quite sure whether at a given time Sri Lanka has one or several universities. Only the first level has been relatively free form such changes.

All this points to the lack of an adequate national policy which may be pursued over a sufficiently long period of time with all the resources the nation can command. The effect of this is that the outcomes from the resource inputs may not be comulative, may not support each other, and vital support from some segments may be altogether absent. Where international

cooperation is concerned the lack of a consisten and adequate policy results in an inability to identify the critical inputs (if any) which may be needed from foreign sources. Instead there is a strong tendency to ask for what is easily quantifiable and justifiable and generally readily accepted by the donors, namely buidlings and equipment of the conventional type.

Conflicts between donor policies and national priorities

It is difficult to give specific instances of conflicts between donor policies and national priorities mainly because because they are not likely to be recorded. What is available on record is the aid which has been given and not the aid which has not been given. In the early 1970's the then government placed considerable emphasis on the junior and senior secondary levels. But a major donor such as UNICEF was concerned with the health and nutrition of younger age groups, whereas earlier much of the UNICEF aid went to support the junior secondary science programme.

It is to be expected that the policies of major donors would be governed not only by the perceived needs of a specific country but also by regional and global policies of the donor agencies. Priorities on a regional and global scale may not coincide with national priorities as perceived by the party in power. Political considerations may be a determining factor. Also, some donors may favour one set of political beliefs to another. Aid which is forthcoming when one party is in power may be very scarce when another party is in control. The nett effect may be that in the long run the country does not get the aid for its high priority needs out may get other kinds of aid.

A good example of a national priority which has not found much support from donors is the expension of the facilities for third level education. Against the background of a high proportion of university graduates remaining unemployed, expansion of the existing type facilities would aggravate the problem. But political survival demands just such a course.

The development of correspondence courses, the proposed establishment of an Open University are not accompanied by a radical change in the aims and content of third level education. It is difficult to resist the conclusion that they are cheap alternatives to conventional third level facilities. Innovative alternatives which may have led to a more usable output from the third level demand not only a long-term national policy but also significant untied aid.

Inadequate supporting services and unrealistic donor expectations

The utilisation of aid requires the availability of certain services. At one level it may only be the existence of adequate storage and distribution facilities. At another level it may require the availability of local personnel who could profitably interact with foreign resource personnel. The need for administrative, communication and other services may be somewhere in between. Instances such as the slow movement of equipment from stores, equipment which is unused or badly used for lack of trained personnel, delay in identifying institutions which need the kind of resource donors willing to supply, are the result of such inadequacies in the supporting services. But the lack or inadequacy of such supporting services is itself one aspect of underdevelopment. If donors make the aid contingent on the availability of such services then it is difficult to prevent the operation of a vicious circle which is bound to aggravate the problems. For example if the quantum of science equipment for distribution to the school system is to be made dependent on the capacity of the central Science store to receive and distribute equipment to schools then the problem of schools with little suitable equipment will be there for a very long time to come. The particular situation in Sri Lanka is the existence of a well dispersed system of schools serviced almost entirely by a state distribution system. There is no possibility of a remote rural school buying the equipment it requires from the nearest town. If at all the school gets any equipment it is from the State system. A widely dispersed system of schools is something very desirable from the point of equality of access. It is also the wide dispersion which makes the distribution of

equipment and other resources and the supervision and guidance of schools more difficult. To pursue with this example not only is more science equipment needed but aid is also needed to improve the distribution system. It would be unrealistic on the part of donor to insist on an efficient distribution system as a pre-condition to the granting of aid in the form of science equipment. Donor expectations with respect to supporting services should be realistic enough to include aid components designed to overcome at least partially such deficiencies where they exist.

Inadequacies of foreign training programmes

Foreign training programmes make a significant contribution to the development of the human resources. The suitability of the kind of programme which may have been adequate in the past is increasingly being questioned. It is now recognised that the kind of problems which are treated in these courses, the technology used to solve them and the general approach to obtaining possible solutions are on the whole irrelevant to local needs. This is with respect to training in the more developed countries. Not every person who goes to the more developed countries for training purposes has the capacity to adapt the knowledge and skills acquired to suit the conditions which obtain locally. It is rarely that trainees are able to follow course designed specially for them. Generally, they follow courses designed for a population with which they have very little in common. A partial solution to this may be a more tight specification of the skills which need to be developed, course regulations which require that field work be done in Sri Lanka under accredited local institutes or personnel and extended durations for the courses.

From Aid to Cooperation - A Review of Foreign Assistance

Foreign aid for education started coming into Sri Lanka in the early Fifties. This was the period when the critical need of the third world countries in the sphere of education had been identified as technical and vocational training. In international circles the diagnosis of the time was that what the third world countries lacked to repeat, even if it be on a very small scale, the German and Japanese miracles in economic recovery from the ravages of the Second World War, was trained man-power, particularly, in technical and vocational areas.

Technical Institutes

In keeping with this policy there was a spurt of activity to set up technical and vocational institutes in the third world countries. Sri Lanka received its first such institution - a Junior Technical Institute under Colombo Plan Aid from New Zealand in 1956. Similar institutes were put up in other district centres such as Jaffna, Kandy, Badulla, Kegalle, Anuradhapura and Kurunegala. These Junior Technical Institutes were designed on the lines of similar institutes in industrialised western countries and were equipped for imparting training at craftsmen level. The trades covered were those pertaining to the usual manufacturing and construction sectors. The quantum of foreign aid that went into this programme of technical institutes is quite considerable for the equipment involved was very expensive. Almost all provided commercial and secretarial courses as well. The equipment needed for these was minimal.

In the course of time these technical institutes acquired more facilities, expanded on the variety of courses and some of them started courses of training at the technician level as well. Today there are two Senior Technical Institutes, six Polytechnical Institutes and 10 Junior Technical Institutes

providing a large variety of courses from Professional or Higher National Diploma level through technician or mid-level to craftsman level. Annexe I is a list of these courses as of today. These Institutes provide both full-time and part-time courses at all levels. The 10,000 students presently enrolled in these Institutes are equally distributed between the 2 categories. Thus these cater both to the needs of the employed wanting to obtain added skills and qualifications as well as those wanting to enter the technical and vocational fields anew.

Looking back on the expansion and operation of these Institutes during the last two decades, it would be correct to say that their contribution in providing the much needed technical vocational training for the country has been slowly but steadily increasing.

At the beginning those passing out from these Institutes in engineering, technology and building trades were less acceptable to the private sector employers than those coming out from the commercial and secretarial courses, although even in the former category, evening part-time courses were popular with those already in the trades and wanting added qualifications. This position arose owing to certain special features in the field of technical and vocational employment that obtained at the time. Even as recently as 2 decades back, it would be correct to state that in the engineering trades there were 3 easily discernible segments in regard to establishments. There were the government departments such as Irrigation, Public Works, Post and Telecommunications, Electrical Power, Railway, Survey Department, Harbour Department etc., engaged in technical work. There were the larger established firms, almost all set up by foreigners, and catering to the engineering needs of the plantations and other large modern sector organisations such as the Banks etc. The third consisted of the very large number of small local enterprises undertaking repairs and other minor works. The larger majority of them were

motor repair garages distributed all over the country. Even in the building industry a similar three-fold segmentation could be identified. Of these 3 the first group had their own training programmes of departmental apprentices. The second group too preferred to recruit new hands with correct aptitude and give them on-the-job training in their own establishments rather than recruit those passing out with technician and trade certificates from the Technical Institutes. However, both these groups did use the facilities provided by the Technical Institutes to get the supporting theoretical knowledge for their apprentices and trainees and this they did by getting them to attend the evening part-time courses. With regard to the third group which was also the largest and potentially the most important, the position was that neither the general educational level of the recruits and their conditions of employment, nor the type of the machinery and equipment used and the unstructured informal nature of the training received, favoured their utilisation of the facilities provided in these Institutes. However, during the last two to three decades this 'cultural gap' that was there between the indigenous informal sector of technical and vocational employment and the State Technical Institutes has been narrowing as a result of developments on both sides. The informal local enterprises are slowly moving up the line in sophistication of equipment and machinery and systematic organisation, while the technical Institutes as they move out to the districts are adopting their course content to suit the local conditions.

Another major item of foreign aid for technical education was the construction together with equipment and machinery for the setting up of a full-fledged Institute of Practical Technology at Katubedde in 1960. Into this Institute was transferred the Engineering Division of the premier technical institute of the country that had been started at the turn of this century - 'The Ceylon Technical College'. This Institute

was by then conducting under-graduate courses in the three main engineering branches of civil, mechanical and electrical on a small scale. Its principal concerns were the full-time technician courses in the same areas and a large number of mid-level and trade courses both full-time as well as part-time in the areas of engineering and technology as well as commerce and secretarial studies. This new Institute of practical technology at Katubedde too commenced with Canadian aid, but was later brought under the United Nations Development Programme. Initially it was planned as an Institute that would be solely devoted to the training of mid-level technical personnel in the various specialities. However subsequently in respect of pressures for expanding facilities for the training of engineers, it was decided to utilise the sophisticated plant and equipment at this Institute to run under-graduate programmes in engineering and it has now developed to be a full-fledged University - recently renamed the University of Moratuwa - providing under-graduate and post-graduate courses in a variety of specialities in engineering including architecture. The original programme for the training of technicians continues to remain within this University as a small section. This is perhaps the largest single technical Institution that has been set up with foreign aid.

Mention also may be made of a similar attempt to develop a Senior Technical Institute associated with the largest irrigation and land settlement scheme in the country at the time - namely the Gal Oya Project. This too was begun with Canadian aid. It was set up in 1956 by late Professor Evan A. Hardy and has since been named after him - the Hardy Senior Technical Institute at Amparai. However, this Institute failed to develop as its hinterland was far removed from the thickly populated and developed south-western and central regions of the country. Because of this remoteness attempts made to send students and teaching staff from other parts of the country failed. The needs of the new land settlement project, however large it be, were totally inadequate for the full utilisation of the complex training facilities provided at this Institute. Up-to-date its facilities remain grossly under-utilised.

Higher Education

In the area of higher education too the pattern of foreign aid received conforms to what it has been in technical education. As already stated, a large Institute of Technology which became a University, and has recently been named the University of Moratuwa, was constructed and equipped with foreign aid. Although not on the same scale, expensive equipment including, in some instances, essential buildings have been provided on a large scale for the Engineering Faculty at Peradeniya and the Science Faculties and Medical Faculties in the different Universities. Expensive items of equipment such as computers, electron microscope, equipment needed for the radio isotope laboratory were received under foreign aid. Equipment and materials as well as books and journals have been received by almost all the faculties and Universities.

The other important component of foreign aid coming into our higher education has been the provision of post-graduate and advanced training facilities for faculty members through numerous Commonwealth, American and other bilateral and multilateral grants of scholarships. Exchanges of senior staff where the services of the Visiting Professors from the Universities in the West are made available and faculty members of our Universities are provided an opportunity to work in some of the advanced centres of learning in the West is another important mode.

More recently some of the Universities have established close links with some foreign Universities for collaboration in research in common areas of interest. Thus, the Statistical Unit of the Colombo University has established linkages with a similar Unit in the Rural Agricultural Economics Division of the Reading University in U.K. The Science Faculty of the Peradeniya University has established linkages with the University of Maryland in USA for purposes of collaboration in research into local medicinal herbs. There are many other similar instances of research collaboration being established.

The most recent case of foreign assistance in the area of higher education is in regard to the proposed Open University in Sri Lanka. In this project the Ministry of Higher Education expects to work in very close collaboration with its counterpart in U.K.

Teacher Education

In teacher education too the pattern has been the same. Patalagedera Science Teachers College is a large project undertaken with foreign assistance where all the buildings and equipment needed for the setting up of a Teachers College for teachers in Science and Mathematics was obtained through foreign aid. Although not on the same scale expensive equipment and materials have been obtained for a large number of Teachers Colleges. Much of this pertains to science, mathematics and handicrafts. A Language Laboratory set up at Peradeniya Teachers College specialising in the teaching of English as the second language is another such gift.

The other component of foreign aid has again been foreign training for local lecturers, particularly, in English, science and mathematics. The services of foreign consultants in the form of lecturers for the Teachers Colleges as well as specialists operating from the Ministry of Education have been obtained under foreign aid programmes.

General Education

Science Teaching

From about the late Fifties and early Sixties, foreign aid for general education was used mainly for the extension of science teaching in the secondary schools. By this time the increased numbers that entered the school system in the late Forties as a result of major demographic changes, namely the sharp fall in death rates without a fall in birth rates, had arrived at the secondary school stage. Furthermore, with the reforms that had taken place in the school system, again in the mid-Forties, the dual system of schools in which science teaching was limited to the few fee-levying and English medium schools had disappeared, at least on paper. This resulted in a situation in which the vast majority of schools which formerly belonged to the poorly equipped free tuition category started urging their claims for science teaching facilities and other similar provileges which up to then were the preserve of the fee-levying schools. Therefore, there was a tremendous demand for more and more facilities for science teaching from the schools. The flow of foreign aid that started coming in in a big way in the Sixties was most welcome in this situation, for this brought in the science apparatus urgently needed for the new laboratories that were being built in the secondary schools of the hitherto neglected areas. This was particularly opportune as the country was experiencing an acute shortage of foreign exchange at this time. Apparatus and materials like chemicals for the school science laboratories had necessarily to be imported from abroad. Therefore at this period had this foreign aid component not been forthcoming the achievements in the spread of science education in the school system that was witness in the Sixties and Seventies would not have been possible.

These local developments followed closely on the heels of the school curriculum development movements in the western world, notably in USA, where it started as a reaction to the launching of the Sputnik by USSR. In our own country it was thought that an expanded science base in the general school system was what the country needed most urgently, education-wise.

Accordingly the services of UNESCO consultants were obtained and aid was sought to improve and extend the science teaching at the middle school level (i.e. grades 6, 7, 8). A special middle school syllabus was drawn up, and special field supervisors were appointed. These field supervisors were trained abroad. An intensive in-service education scheme was put into operation. Science teaching equipment were obtained under aid programmes. This era also saw the great concern with improvised equipment as it was then called. UNESCO handbooks were available on science teaching at this level. This programme again had all the appearances of a well-planned one. However, it was unfortunate that this concern with the middle school (grades 6, 7, 8) science teaching occurred at a time when the importance of the middle school in an examination oriented system was already considerably diminished. There was a time when grade 8 was called the Junior Form and there was a national examination at the end of grade 8. At the end of grade 8 there was a selection into science and non-science. The examination at the end of grade 8 was called the Junior School Certificate Examination. While this examination was held, the middle school was an important segment of the school in its own right. With the abolition of this examination grade 8 ceased to have such significance. More and more pupils were going beyond grade 8 and the new terminal grades became grades 9 and 10. Schools no longer came to be judged by their results at the grade 8 examination. Increasing importance came to be attached to the examination at the end of grade 10. While the authorities put most of the emphasis and resources into middle school science, most heads of schools and regional officers were more concerned with science in grades 9 and 10. Trained teachers who were supposed to teach middle school science did so only if they had time to spare from the work in grades 9 and 10. If the school had a laboratory or science rooms, it is rarely that the middle school science pupils had the chance of using the special

facilities. Facilities for doing "practical work" was reserved for science students at grade 9 and above. It was increasingly being realised that not much headway was being made with middle school science. From the early part of the 60's emphasis was shifted to science teaching at the grades 9 and 10 level. The middle school science programme almost disappeared from the school.

From the point of view of human resource development, the middle school science programme made a significant contribution although it failed to be the much needed break through in reforming the school system. The middle school programme created a group of well trained field supervisors, nearly all of whom had their post-graduate training abroad and who were deployed to solve science education problems on the local front. The well-planned and systematic in-service education and field supervision done by them generated a pattern of interaction with the classroom teachers which was to prove very useful in the grades 9 and 10 programmes. The science supervisor knew personally practically every science teacher and the school resources in his area.

For nearly a decade from the early 60's foreign aid and assistance to the education sector was largely for the grades 9 and 10 Science programme. With the expansion of the science teaching facilities into more and more schools the number of candidates sitting for the GCE (CL) examination in the science subjects which was 5,000 in 1957 increased to 30,000 in 1966, and to 46,000 and 73,000 in 1971 and 1973 respectively. Consequent on this increase of GCE (OL) enrolments in the science subjects, there arose a demand for more places for the teaching of science at the GCE (AL) grades. The equipment needed for the teaching of science at this pre-university level was more expensive and the foreign component was quite large. These too were met by with the foreign aid that continued to come right through the sixties

and up to the seventies. In the GCE (AL) examination which was introduced in 1964, the number of candidates in the science subjects has increased from 5,000 in 1966 to 18,000 in 1977. Even at present the expansion of science teaching at the GCE (OL) and now, even more, at the GCE (AL), is being continued utilising foreign aid.

As the data in the previous sections indicated, nearly the whole of the science equipment and transport facilities for the field staff came from UNICEF. Not only was the quantum of foreign aid involved large it also had a widespread impact on a programme that was expanding at a fantastic rate. However, there are some very significant aspects which this data fails to convey.

One very significant development was the institutionalisation of curricular development work with an entirely local leadership. This development owed much to foreign assistance not only by way of materials and equipment but also by way of consultants and the training abroad of local personnel. The middle school science ~~efforts~~ programme which aborted was able however, because of its local oriental design, to provide a base for this growth. This period saw the design functions initiated by foreign consultants being gradually taken over completely by local personnel. The decision-making for the grades 9 and 10 science curriculum work was entirely local. A similar development took place with respect to the design and execution of in-service education programmes. In fact towards the end of the decade the field supervisors were designing and executing in-service programmes under the broad guidelines given by the Curriculum Development Centre.

Another development with respect to in-service education needs to be mentioned. It illustrates the utilisation of foreign expertise to achieve significant objectives under local direction. At the start of the grades 9 and 10 science

programmes it was recognised that apart from practising teachers in the respective grades there were other important groups which needed such a service. The principal groups were the 3rd level staff, teacher education staff, and field supervisory staff. The in-service education of these groups required that the staff be not only at an adequate level of academic ability but also with some recognition in the education world. It was very fortunate that at this time aid of the nature required was being offered by the U.K. With the help of the British Council it was possible to negotiate an aid programme in which leading science and mathematics personnel from the U.K. collaborated with local counterparts in designing and executing suitable in-service programmes. When the programme really got under way the recruitment of personnel were dependent on the objectives and other specifications developed by local personnel. A feature of these programmes was that local third level staff also collaborated in the design and execution. Where the third level staff was concerned, the selected representatives were given an opportunity to visit science education centres in the U.K. under a programme of study tours. Over and above this the U.K. also offered one year fellowships under which teacher education, field supervisory and curriculum staff were trained in the U.K.

This pattern of collaboration with foreign personnel indicates a considerable shift from the idea that the solution of local educational problems required only expert advice from overseas and what the local people needed to do was simply follow the advice. The shift is towards the recognition that the solution of local problems demands a local expertise, that decision-making is entirely a local affair and that foreign expertise is needed but in a well defined context and for specific objectives. This pattern of development was supported by what was taking place on a regional level with the establishment of Asian Institutes by the UN

system for such purposes as school building, research, teacher education and education management. The idea of regional collaboration as against looking towards the developed western world was gradually evolving. It was expected that after the initial inputs from the UN system that these institutes would not only continue but grow and serve the Asian Region. Apparently these institutes have failed to take root. It may be that their design was for a totally different environment.

The grades 9 and 10 science programme was very effective in redressing the district-wise imbalances which existed in the facilities for learning science at this level. More and more schools in deprived areas were equipped to teach science. Trained teachers were posted to these schools. There was effective field supervision and in-service education. The examination system itself was being used as a lever to support the changes being initiated in the instructional system. In all of these, from equipping selected schools to reforming the examination foreign aid and collaboration were involved. Despite many of the achievements the grades 9 and 10 science programme failed to make a significant difference to the school system as a whole. Science was just another examination subject receiving more support from the authorities than most other subjects. Its prestige in the school system and the support it received from most parents, heads of schools etc., had relatively little to do with the need to have science in the school curriculum from a general education standpoint.

In this success story of foreign aid for science teaching the one item that can be counted as a failure is the project for the setting up of a 'Science Equipment Manufacturing Unit'. Expensive machinery has been installed, foreign consultants' services obtained, local technical personnel trained abroad and initial requirements such as the specifications of the items to be turned out is a phased one programme of development worked out. However, the output from the Unit has been very low. Organisational problems appear to be the main obstacles in the way of this project.

Vocational Subjects

Foreign aid in to the school system was not confined to science education. Almost concurrently with the establishment of the Junior Technical Institutes referred to earlier, a programme was launched for the introduction of woodwork, metal work, ceramics, weaving, arts and crafts in the secondary schools. For this purpose a comprehensive programme with specialist teacher education, training of supervisors abroad, design and construction of workshops, equipping these workshops with expensive sets of tools and equipment bought from abroad were included. More than 400 of these type plan workshops with elaborate sets of tools and equipment were built in the larger secondary schools all over the country in the late Fifties and the early Sixties. However, this elaborate attempt at the introduction of vocational subjects into the school curriculum suffered the same sad fate as many other earlier attempts made in the same direction. Whilst as already stated the number offering the science subjects at the GCE (OL) examination increased from 5,000 in 1957 to 73,000 in 1973 the numbers offering these vocational subjects in 1971 were as follows - woodwork 7,000, metal work 2,400, weaving 8,600, ceramics 2,100. This was in spite of the fact that these subjects were introduced into the schools on almost the same lines as the science subjects and the number of secondary schools with standard science laboratories was not many more than the number with well equipped standard type workshops, and specialist teachers in the subjects. The majority of these workshops are now heavily underutilised and in a state of neglect.

Although not on the same scale, utilising foreign aid, an attempt was also made to set up model school farms. By 1969, 50 such pilot school farms were set up in different parts of the country. Into these model farms were provided a simple agricultural laboratory together with a fenced out model farm. Equipment needed for the farm and agricultural teaching were provided. As in the case of the other vocational subjects, this programme too has turned out to be a failure.

Teaching of English

Another area in which there has been a large inflow of foreign aid into the school system is ~~in~~ with regard to the teaching of English as a second language. Although there is no equipment involved, other than two language laboratories that have been set up, the quantum of aid that has come in the form of technical assistance for this subject has been considerable. A number of foreign consultants in the teaching of English as a second language have been working all along at the Teacher Training Colleges as well as the Curriculum Development Centre. They have been helpful in the preparation of textbooks and teachers guides and other teaching material, in conducting in-service training sessions for teachers, and in getting up school radio programmes in the teaching of English. Regularly Sri Lankan teachers have had their training abroad in this special subject mostly in U.K. but also in Australia and U.S A. Of all subjects in the curriculum perhaps it is in this that we have had the largest number of foreign consultants as well as the largest number of local teachers trained abroad. The collaboration between the foreign consultants and their counterparts has been very close.

Summary

What patterns can be discerned in the flow of foreign aid for education in Sri Lanka up to this stage? These will obviously depend heavily on the national policies in education. It would be correct to say that until about the first part of this decade, educational policies in Sri Lanka arose from two main sources. First, there was the popular demand for equalisation of educational opportunities. As already stated earlier, policy decisions to do away with the extremely inequitable dual system of schools were introduced ~~in~~ as early as the Forties. However, it needed both time and resources to reduce the gross imbalances in educational facilities that

obtained from school to school, from district to district and as between urban and rural areas. Here what was most striking to the parents were those items that affected directly the employment chances of the pupils. In this respect provision of the higher levels of secondary education and more particularly the teaching of science and mathematics in these grades were considered critical. What is more, in the level of facilities provided for these subjects there were deep unevenness as between one area and another. Colombo and Jaffna in particular and a few of the larger district capitals were heavily favoured while the rural areas were badly neglected.

The second source from which educational policies flowed during this period, more particularly in the late Fifties and Sixties wa quality improvement through curriculum development, teacher education, improved textbooks and teaching equipment, evaluation and other pedagogical devices. In fact, this was closely connected to the first consideration for curriculum development was primarily concentrated on science and mathematics. Large investments from foreign aid were made for quality improvements in science teaching. The foreign aid in education that come into the school system was utilised primarily for these two purposes, namely, to reduce the imbalances in the provision of facilities on the one hand and to up grade the quality of teaching through curriculum development, teacher training, preparation of teaching material, pupils texts, laboratory manuals etc.

As already indicated at the commencement of this chapter, a fair proportion of the foreign aid for education was utilised for setting up institutes for technical and vocational education. Although these appeared too sophisticated and almost irrelevant for the local conditions in the Fifties when they were being set up, today it is clear that they are a positive asset to the country. However, slowly the technology available in the country has advanced and with these advances more and more people qualified in the technical subjects are

needed in the various sectors of the economy. These manpower needs are being met by the outputs from these Institutes. In regard to University education too the main component of foreign aid was utilised for science and technology, particularly engineering.

Another conventional classification of foreign aid is material aid and technical aid - technical aid being in the form of services of foreign consultants and technical training abroad for local personnel. Of these two, Sri Lanka has had much more of the former than the latter for obvious reasons. At a time when there was an acute shortage in foreign exchange, there was a great demand for the expansion of facilities for the teaching of science and technology in the country. These subjects needed expensive equipment and materials that had to be imported from abroad. What is more, our system of central administration and uniform syllabuses covering the entire school system enables the utilisation of large amounts of foreign aid in relatively short periods of time. This is due to the fact that the requirements of a school laboratory can be multiplied a few thousand fold for all school laboratories conform to the same type plan and teach the same syllabuses. Similarly the requisitions of very expensive items of machinery and equipment for technical institutes can be multiplied twenty times over.

Recent Trends

It was only in 1972 that a reform of the education system as a whole was attempted. While much emphasis was being placed on the teaching of science and mathematics, it was nevertheless as a part of the total school curriculum. While foreign assistance was sought for the proposed expansion of science teaching, aid was also sought for other areas such as aesthetic studies, pre-vocational studies. Training abroad was sought for these fields as well. Some of the aid streams were diverted to these fields. For example, Japanese aid for

the teaching of science which included the provision of experts and associated equipment was diverted to aid pre-vocational studies. Four experts in fishery education were provided by Japan. Equipment was also provided for a small number of selected schools which were to serve as training centres for other teachers. The local counterparts of the experts were trained in Japanese Fishery Schools. Aid for pre-vocational studies was also sought for, the mood was largely one of self-reliance with a will to go it all alone should it become necessary. Looking back on this period it would appear that reform of this magnitude requires more time and other resources than the system was able to muster. On the whole one could say that a rush job was attempted on an immense task and it is not surprising that it turned out to be a failure. The major part of the educational reforms of 1972 have been abandoned by the new government that came into power in 1977.

This period also saw a further development of the idea of regional cooperation in the establishment of APEID. The local Curriculum Development Centre became an affiliated member of the network of regional educational centres. As such it performed certain functions for the region, the most notable so far being the conducting of a month-long workshop in curriculum development for selected countries of the Asian region. The workshop faculty was entirely Asian. Under the Asian Programme for Educational Innovation and Development (APEID) Programme it has been possible for local design personnel to meet their counterparts in other countries of the Asian region. APEID publications on Asian attempts at solving educational problems provide much-needed information. It has become very clear that developing nations have much to learn from each other. Very considerable interest was evinced by other Asian countries in the prevocational studies of the then junior secondary school, the project work scheme for the then senior secondary school, the in-service education programme for the school system and the elementary programme. Much interest was evinced in the local curriculum centre itself.

Looking back over nearly three decades of foreign assistance it would appear that new patterns of collaboration have been developed. There is a very clear recognition that solutions cannot be imported. An uncritical acceptance of foreign know-how has been replaced by an awareness that foreign expertise can make a significant contribution. It is also evident that while the attempts to improve parts of the system have not had the desired impact on the system as a whole, aid was not forthcoming in adequate amounts when attempts were made to tackle the educational problems from a much wider perspective.

Future Prospects

As in the case of the past and the present, in the future too, the role of international cooperation in education will depend largely on the national educational policies of the country. However with increasing exchange of views across countries and an awareness of the world context in which many national problems are embedded there is a growing tendency for national policies even in sectors such as education to be influenced by international trends. Up to now, in Sri Lanka, in education, equity was accepted as equality of educational opportunity. Even wide gaps in educational achievement were accepted as consistent with equity oriented policies if the opportunities to reach the few places at the top were open to all on fairly equitable terms. It was accepted that there could be only a few reaching the top rungs in the educational ladder and the interpretation of equity was that these few be open to all on equal terms. It did not matter if in this process the educational needs of the vast majority who would not get even a short way up the system went by default. The perpetuity elitism was accepted provided a high degree of social mobility was assured.

It is doubtful whether the new world order that the international community is seeking to establish would accept the above interpretation of equity in regard to educational policies. It is increasingly being felt that the disadvantaged masses, particularly in the third world countries, must be made to benefit from the explosion of knowledge and the vastly improved methodologies of learning and means of communication that have been developed of late. What modes of education can be evolved to serve this purpose? It looks as though the formal system of education, so long as it is called upon to perform selection as a major function, would not be able to meet the educational needs of the masses. Its function as a medium of selection has a major democratic appeal particularly when widespread and equitable schooling facilities turn formal education to be principal instrument of social mobility. Therefore, it may well be that the educational needs of the non-elitist groups have to be met through other modes. One is inclined to feel that in the coming decade the international leadership in the field of education as well as international cooperation and aid flows in education would tend to concentrate on this urgent need. Sri Lanka would furnish a very interesting case study for such a strategy.